VIRGINIA LITERARY MUSEUM

AND

JOURNAL OF BELLES LETTRES, ARTS, &c.

Published every Wednesday.—Terms, five dollars per annum, to be paid in advance.

"POSCENTES VARIO MULTUM DIVERSA PALATO"—Hor. Lib. ii. Ep. 2.

No. 3.—VOL. 1. UNIVERSITY OF VIRGINIA. JULY 1, 1829.

ON THE CAUSES OF ENDEMIC DISEASE.

"*Nec Hecubam, causam interitus fuisse Trojanis, quod Alexandrum genuerit.*"

CICERO, *de Fato*, 15.

"Nor was Hecuba the cause of the destruction of Troy because she bare Alexander."

The recent and distressing visitation of Fever, at this University, and the various conjectures, which have been entered into, regarding its causes, have induced us to offer a few remarks on the causes of endemic fever in general, in order that the reader may be enabled to judge of the exact degree of knowledge or ignorance of the Medical Profession, regarding this obscure point in the history of disease.

The difficulties which will be found to envelope the subject, when dispassionately considered, may, moreover, have the effect of arresting those hypotheses, in which mankind are ever ready to indulge, even when utterly uninstructed, or but imperfectly informed, on a subject.

The Medical Profession have adopted three terms to express their leading ideas of the causes of Fever: these must be understood before proceeding farther.

Those causes, which are connected with a particular locality only, are said to be *endemic*; those which are seated in the atmosphere and affect a more or less considerable extent of country, unconnected with locality, are said to be *epidemic*; and those, which are produced by some emanation from an animal body, labouring under a similar disease, are said to be *contagious*—The diseases resulting from those respective causes being termed *endemic*, *epidemic* and *contagious*. These causes, it will be obvious, may not act singly, in all cases, but may be, and frequently are, combined: for instance, there may be something improper about the locality, connected with an unfavorable condition of the atmosphere, which may occasion one place to be insalubrious, whilst others in the immediate vicinity are entirely healthy: in other words, the causes of the fever may be of an endemico-epidemic character. Whilst again, there may be a constitution of the atmosphere, favourable to the extension of a disease which is unquestionably contagious, or the causes of the disease may be of an epidemico-contagious character. The fever, which has recently prevailed at the University, seems to have been of the class of endemico-epidemics, in some instances, perhaps, contagious, although there was no positive evidence of contagion: some of the sick, it is true, when healthy, had held communication with those labouring under the disease, but by far the majority of cases occurred where no communication whatever had taken place.

Of the endemic causes of fever, we have the most familiar and striking example in the marshy miasm or exhalation—the *Malaria* or *Aria Cattiva* of the Italians, which is the fertile source of insalubrity in the marshy districts of every clime, when circumstances are favourable to its evolution. Experience *alone* has proved to us, that in such localities particular diseases do arise; but we are in utter ignorance of the precise changes, which have occurred in the air of the place, even when the Malaria is escaping and acting with its greatest malignity. Chemical analysis has thrown no light on the subject, and our knowledge is therefore confined to the fact, that in marshy districts some terrestrial emanation does occur, which, when

applied to the human body occasions disease.

By some writers on this subject it has been imagined, that vegetable, putrefaction is the cause of this subtile agent. By others, aqueous putrefaction, or animal putrefaction, or different combinations of these have been invoked, but there is no positive, *historical*, evidence, that any one or any combination of these varieties of putrefaction does ever occasion, even in marshy districts, malarious or miasmatic disease.

1. *Vegetable Putrefaction, singly, does not give rise to Endemic Fever.*—By vegetable putrefaction, it may be premised, is understood the humid decay of vegetables.

That malaria must be something more than vegetable decomposition is proved by many facts. It has been found, in many cases, most virulent and abundant on the driest surfaces: often where vegetation has never, apparently, existed, or could exist, as in the steep ravine of a dried water course.

Dr. Ferguson, who had extensive and melancholy experience in this matter, during the war in Spain, as well as in many parts of the British West India Islands, and who is, moreover, a scientific observer, has given some striking instances, in a paper on marsh poison, read before the Royal Society of Edinburgh in the year 1820, (See *Transactions of the Royal Society of Edinburgh*, vol. ix.)

The first time he observed any extensive epidemic intermittent, in the army, was in 1794, when after a very hot and dry summer, the British troops, in the month of August, took up the encampments of Rosendaal and Oosterhout in South Holland. The soil, in both places, was a level plain of sand, with a perfectly dry surface, where no vegetation existed or *could* exist, but stunted heath plants: on digging, it was universally found to be percolated with water, to within a few inches of the surface, which, so far from being at all putrid, was perfectly potable in all the wells of the camp." On their advance to Talavera, the British army had to march through a very dry country, and, in the hottest weather, fought that celebrated battle which was followed by a retreat into the plains of Estremadura, along the course of the Guadiana river, at a time, when the country was so arid and dry, for want of rain, that the Guadiana itself, and all the smaller streams had, in fact, *ceased to be streams*, and were no more than *lines of detached pools*, in the courses that had formerly been rivers: and, there, the soldiers suffered from remittent fevers of such destructive malignity, "that the enemy and all Europe believed that the British host was extirpated."

Many similar topographical illustrations of Spain are adduced by the same writer, of great interest, but which the limits to which this article must necessarily be restricted prevent us from laying before the reader. From these, he remarks, "it will be seen, that in the most unhealthy parts of Spain, we may in vain, towards the close of summer, look for lakes, marshes, ditches, pools, or even vegetation. Spain, generally speaking, is then, though as prolific of endemic fever as Walchesen, beyond all doubt, one of the driest countries in Europe, and it is not till it has again been made one of the wettest, by the periodical rains, with its vegetation and aquatic weeds restored, that it can be called healthy, or even habitable, with any degree of safety." p. 280. In another part of his communication he observes, that malaria is never found in Savannahs or plains, that have been flooded in the rainy season, till their surface has been thoroughly exsiccated; vegetation burnt up; and its putrefaction rendered as impossible as the putrefaction of an Egyptian mummy.

The very period, indeed, of the year, in which malarious fevers occur, opposes the theory of this humid decay of vegetables. In summer, the plant is more succulent; all other circumstances are equally favorable to decomposition; yet it is not then that this change occurs, but in the autumnal season, when the waters have been more or less evaporated, vegetation completely dried up and putrefaction rendered almost impracticable.

It may be said, that the experience of every one shews that stagnant pools, mill ponds, &c. *are* insalubrious—doubtless they are, but not from the cause that is here imagined: the bottom of the stagnant pool or mill-pond becomes miasmatic, and this we learn only from experience—the soil is exposed by the evaporation of the water, and in the autumnal heats, gives off the unknown, subtile and pestiferous agent.

Again, to vegetable putrefaction singly,

we are constantly exposed: the very grass and the decaying vegetable matter which surrounds our habitations, especially in the woods, is always undergoing more or less of decomposition. In the West India sugar ships, the drainings of the sugar, mixed with the bilge water of the hold, create a stench that is absolutely suffocating to those unaccustomed to it: yet fevers are never known to be generated from such a combination.

We are aware that endemics have frequently been ascribed to this vegetable putrefaction singly: such an assigned cause is to be found in the works of Medical writers, but it is not, on this account, to be implicitly credited. It has ever been a prevalent idea, that whatever is offensive to the senses must be more or less capable of giving rise to disease. This prevalent idea, has, in the obscurity of the subject, been adopted by the Medical Practitioner: and the opinion, unsupported by any correct evidence, has been transferred from one author to another, until it has been ultimately considered canonical:—Accordingly, when endemic disease arises, all eyes are directed to the vegetable kingdom, and if a harmless heap of vegetable matter be discovered, it is esteemed sufficient to account for the whole. Not long ago endemic fever occurred, by which a whole family was attacked without any assignable cause: the physician, however, on looking into a cellar, found a quantity of shingles, and this discovery was considered sufficient to explain every thing. A more harmless occupant could scarcely have been met with, yet, being *vegetable*, it was held to be a satisfactory cause of the disease.

The above remarks have been directed, chiefly, to the putrefaction of succulent vegetables, but, from the loose mode in which the expressions of Medical writers have been worded, it has been imagined, that they implied that *vegetable matter*, in *any* form, may undergo putrefaction or decomposition, and give off exhalations, capable of inducing disease. Were this the case we should be constantly exposed, in our ordinary habitations, to additional insalubrious exhalations, and ever liable to miasmatic affections: every house, which is covered with shingles, every wooden dwelling, especially if surrounded by dead trees, and in the woods, ought to be a constant prey to them. This is fortunately not the case, and the reason is obvious: the shingles of which a roof may be constructed and the additional covering of flat roofs are all deprived of their succulency, and reduced nearly to the state of lignin or woody fibre, in which, as every chemist knows, nothing like the putrefaction of the succulent vegetable can take place. But let us suppose, for an instant, that such a covering *could* give off malaria, how excessively small must that emanation be, at any one period, which requires a series of years for the destructive decomposition of the substance exhaling it: and if, as we have attempted to show, the rapid putrefaction of succulent vegetables is incapable of producing endemic disease, how much less active must that slow decomposition be, which has to operate upon the woody fibre? There is not, however, amongst the various conflicting authorities on this obscure subject, one solitary individual, who has contemplated *this* variety of vegetable matter, when speaking of vegetable putrefaction, as a cause of fever. "It is a curious question, but one of great difficulty," says a recent writer on this subject "whether there is any difference between the results of the decomposition of different vegetables. Few observations seem to have been made by physicians upon this point, and it is only by observation that we can learn any thing. It is certainly worthy of more attention than it has yet obtained. We have heard some strange statements and ingenious speculations on this subject. The plants, however, which have frequently been considered as suspicious are those, which grow spontaneously in rich damp soils. They may perhaps rather indicate, than produce, exclusively or in any peculiar degree, these noxious exhalations. The strong objection to this opinion, is, that in every part of the globe where climate and soil, and local circumstances favour the generation of malaria, this evil principle is felt, however dissimilar may be the productions of the vegetable kingdom, however much, not only species and genera, but even tribes and natural families may be found to differ."

2. *Animal Putrefaction, singly, does not give rise to Endemic Fever.*

This position does not require much argument—yet it is a matter of difficulty to convince the world, that what is offensive

to the smell must not necessarily be the cause of endemic fever. Putrescent animal food, it is well known, is eaten, and yet not habitually, by many of the nations of the earth—the Greenlander and Kamtschadale devour half putrid flesh with as keen a relish as the European finds in his greatest dainties. The southern Asiatic revels in putridity, and, even amongst some of the more civilized nations, game is preferred in a state of incipient putrefaction, and when the odour is disgustingly offensive, yet no bad effects are induced. The manufacture of catguts is so disagreeable, in this point of view, that the 'Society for the Encouragement of National Industry' of Paris, a few years ago, offered a prize to any person, who could render the process less disgusting; and an ingenious *Pharmacien*, M. Labarraque, rendered an important service to the community, by the discovery and promulgation of the disinfecting power of the chlorides, of which, advantage has since been taken in medicine and in the arts (see *L'Art du Boyaudier* &c. or "Art of the Gut Spinner," &c. by A. G. Labarraque, Paris, 1822); yet this offensive process did not occasion endemic disease.

The author of this article has practised extensively in the vicinity of individuals, called "*Knackers*," whose occupation it is to convert the body of the dead horse to some of the useful purposes referred to by Dr. Cooper, and especially into cat's and dog's meat: yet he never discovered the neighbourhood particularly subject to endemic disease.* The tainted air of the dissecting room is breathed, month after month, and for many months, by hundreds of students, in different parts of the globe, yet no endemic fever is generated. Doubtless it is important, for purposes of general comfort and salubrity, that a pure air should always be respired, and in an unhealthy condition of atmosphere, whether of an endemic or epidemic character, disease would *cæteris paribus*, be more liable to be induced. All that is meant to be maintained is—that putrid emanations, alone, are not likely to be the cause of endemic disease. Sudden and forcible impressions upon any of the other senses—vivid light, acute sounds, cutaneous irritations—may all induce temporary disorder, and are equally likely to do so as offensive odours.

3. *Aqueous Decomposition does not induce Endemic Fever.*

This can be demonstrated by familiar examples. The bilge water, in the holds of ships, to which reference has been made, does not occasion disease, unless in some rare instances, where it has become actually dried up like that of a marsh, or absorbed into the collected rubbish and foulness of the ship's well: verifying the common saying of the sailors, that a leaky ship is ever a healthy ship, and *vice versa*.

The British ships of war, when about to proceed on a long voyage, lay in a stock of water, generally from the Thames, which is loaded with animal and vegetable matter. The quantity taken in is, at times, so great as to constitute many floorings or tiers of barrels, close to which the people sleep with impunity, although it is disgustingly putrid, and could scarcely fail to affect them, if it contained any seeds of disease. In some ships, the water is kept in large tanks over which the crew sleep in safety. They, who have never seen the water of the Thames, can have but little idea of its impure condition, yet it is preferred, on a long voyage, inasmuch as it has the property of self-purification. After it has been for some time in the casks or tanks, the animal and vegetable substances, contained in it, become putrid, and so much gas is disengaged, that it may be readily inflamed on the surface of the water: the solid and insoluble matters are then deposited, and the water becomes comparatively pure and potable.

In this case, we have a combination of *animal*, *vegetable* and *aqueous* decomposition, and under favourable circumstances for producing disease, yet no endemic is generated.

Dr. Ferguson has adduced a similar example occurring on land. At Lisbon, and throughout Portugal, there can be no gardens without water: but the garden is almost every thing to a Portuguese family. All classes of the inhabitants endeavour to preserve it, particularly in Lisbon, for which purpose they have very large stone

* Since writing this, the author has seen a similar statement regarding the *knackers* of Paris, (taken from the 5th. volume of the *Recueil Iadustriel)* in the No. of the *Journal of the Franklin Institute*, for January, 1829.

reservoirs of water, that are filled by pipes, from the public aqueducts, when water is abundant:—but these supplies are always cut off in the summer. The water, consequently, being most precious, is husbanded with the utmost care for the three months of absolute drought of the summer season. It falls of course into the most concentrated state of foulness and putridity, diminishing and evaporating day after day, till it subsides into a thick, green, vegetable scum, or a dried crust. In the confined gardens of Lisbon particularly, these reservoirs may be seen in this state close to the houses, close even to the sleeping places of the household, in the atmosphere of which they literally live and breathe: yet no one ever heard or dreamt of fever being generated amongst them from such a source: though the most ignorant native is well aware, that were he only to cross the river and sleep on the sandy shores of the Alentejo, where a *particle* of water at that season had not been seen for months, and where water, being absorbed into the sand, as soon as it fell, was never known to be *putrid*, he would run the greatest risk of being seized with remittent fever.

4. Of the innocency of a combination of animal and vegetable putrefaction, we have numerous examples: those of the dunghill and of the animal and vegetable refuse in every extensive farm yard need alone be referred to.

5. Of the harmlessness of a combination of aqueous and vegetable putrefaction, the case of the sugar ship is sufficient. It has indeed been repeatedly asserted, that the steeping of hemp, which is frequently done in stagnant pools, is an unhealthy process: and the Italians have accordingly issued ordinances to prevent it: but these ordinances, as Dr. Ferguson has correctly remarked, have overlooked the leading, primary, causes, seated in the stagnant pool, the autumnal season and the miasmatic or malarious soil around, and have had their attention directed to a concomitant circumstance of little or no importance. Nor does the manufacture of the indigo constitute an exception to the rule laid down. It is peculiar in the process, as it is in the products, and besides, if *putrefaction* be permitted, the product is spoiled. Again, that these pestilential emanations may arise in marshy districts, it is necessary that there shall be a degree of temperature sufficient to evaporate more or less of the water and to expose the bottom to the solar heat: the marsh must, in other words, cease to be a marsh: and the *sensible* putrefaction of organic substances be impossible before the surface can become deletereous: hence, the writer to whose excellent article reference has been made more than once, has been induced to conclude, that there seems to be one only condition indispensable to the production of the marsh poison, on all surfaces capable of absorbtion, and that is—the *paucity* of water where it has previously and recently *abounded*. "To this there is no exception in climates of high temperature, and from thence we may justly infer, that the poison is produced at a highly advanced stage of the drying process;" and he properly adds that "in the present state of our knowledge we can no more tell what that precise stage may be, or what that poison actually is, the developement of which must be ever varying, according to circumstances of temperature, moisture, elevation, perflation, aspect, texture and depth of soil, than we can define and describe those vapours that generate typhus fever, small pox and other diseases."

The marsh itself then gives off no malaria, except from the part which is exposed, and the same may be said of the lake and stagnant pond. The mode of cultivating the land in some of the departments of France,—Basse Bresse, Brenne, Sologne and Dombes, consists in forming it alternately into ponds, and then submitting it to tillage: it is kept in the state of pond, for 18 months or two years, at the expiration of which time the water is made to run into a neighbouring field: the land is recultivated for one or two years, and afterwards, again formed into a pond: the consequence of this system is, that the whole country is rendered almost uninhabitable: the labourer enters upon the land, as soon as the water has been drained off, to put it into a state of culture, and imbibes the miasmatic emanations in full concentration; the mortality is excessive, amounting to one half the labourers, according to Fodéré. But these ponds are not thus unhealthy until more or less drained or evaporated: the ditcher, too, may pursue his avocation with impunity, until the water is more or less absorbed or evaporated; but, so soon as an extensive

drying and dried surface is exposed, the place becomes insalubrious. A striking instance of the increase of malaria, after draining, is given by M. Rigaud Delile. "At the time of the erection of the bridge of Felice, in order to unite all the waters of the river, Sextus V. was obliged to divert a branch of the Tiber, which passed below the hills of Magliano, leaving to time the task of filling the old bed. Half of the population perished: one single convent of Nuns contained 69 sisters, including Novices, of whom 63 died in two years."

It has been already asserted, that we are utterly uninformed regarding the precise character of the emanations from even the most unhealthy marshes, where we know, that some volatile matter *must* be disengaged. The air has been over and over again submitted to analysis, but, in no case, have any other constituents been discovered or any different proportions of those constituents than what are met with in the air of the most salubrious situations. It is not hydrogen, or carburetted, or sulphuretted hydrogen, for no such adventitious gases are discoverable on the most accurate analysis—nor is it an additional quantity of carbonic acid gas or of azote. The revival of the old theory of animalcules, in the eighth number of the *American Quarterly Review* scarcely requires a comment, as the author has manifestly too much ingenuity to be serious.

The causes, then, of endemic disease are involved in great obscurity. It may, indeed, be affirmed, that we are totally unacquainted with the cause of every endemic disease of every kind. All that we know of malaria is, that it seems to consist of some peculiar terrestrial emanation of which we know nothing. We are totally in the dark, regarding the precise nature of the locality, which renders the base of lofty mountains in every region of the globe subject to *Goitre* or *Bronchocele*, as it is technically termed—the swelled neck, of which many cases are met with in this country. We know not why the yellow fever, is endemic in the West Indies—the Guinea Worm and elephantiasis in Africa or idiocy and corporeal deformity in the Valais—the causes are inscrutable and will probably ever remain so. Yet, at one period, not a doubt was entertained that the swelled neck was occasioned by drinking snow water, which had descended from the summits of the lofty mountains into the vallies. The discovery that it was common in countries, where no snow was ever perceptible, at length exploded this common belief.

Our ignorance is not, however, confined to endemic disease. We know no more of the immediate cause of epidemics—of the influenza for example, which frequently visits us, than we do of the cause of the incessant vicissitudes which occur in the atmosphere itself: nor have we the slightest acquaintance with the constituents of any emanation from the subject of any one of the numerous contagious disorders,—small pox, measles, &c.—active as such emanations unquestionably are.

The extent of our ignorance on this subject will be most clearly exhibited, by a reference to the chief *ex professo* essays which have appeared, within the last few years. In the year 1820, as we have seen, Dr. Ferguson read his paper on marsh poison before the Royal Society of Edinburgh. In the seventy second number of the *Edinburgh Review*, an article was contained on the subject, which was ascribed to Dr. M'Culloch, and, in the fifty-ninth number of the *London Quarterly*, several of the views, therein maintained, were combated. In the year 1823, M. J. S. E. Julia published, at Paris, a work entitled "*Recherches historiques, chimiques et medicales sur l'air marecageux*," or, "Researches historical, chemical and medical on marshy air," and, in the course of the last year, Dr. M'Culloch gave to the world a treatise on the subject, reviews of which, constituting distinct essays, have been recently afforded in the *Southern Review* and the *American Quarterly*.

All these essays, except the latter of Dr. M'Culloch, are now before us.

Dr. Ferguson's opinion has been already stated—he is satisfied, that malaria does not arise from aqueous or vegetable putrefaction singly or combined. The author of the article in the London Quarterly seems to possess opinions nearly similar to those of Dr. Ferguson. M. Julia ascribes it to a union of animal and vegetable putrefaction, but expresses his total ignorance of the nature of the emanation. Dr. M'Culloch maintains, that putrefuction, in the proper sense of the term, is not necessary to its production, but that the stage or mode of vegetable decomposition, required for the production of the malaria, is differ-

ent from that, which generates a fetid gas. The Southern Reviewer, more bold in his assertions, affirms it to be a doctrine established by incontrovertible reasoning, "founded on a vast mass of accumulated facts," that the principal source of this deleterious agent is the decomposition of vegetable substances, whilst the author of the article in the *American Quarterly* attempts to prop what, he properly terms, the exploded opinion that miasma is animalcular; and, we may add, that others, amongst whom is President Dwight of Yale College, who was extremely fond of physical investigations, have maintained the opinion that the diseases, commonly imputed to stagnant waters and marsh miasmata, are produced by animalcular putrefaction!

What do these discrepancies prove but that there are no fixed ideas on the subject?

In conclusion, we may affirm, from a thorough consideration of the matter, that we are wholly uninstructed regarding the immediate cause of any one of these endemics or endemico-epidemics, which so frequently affect districts previously healthy: the anxieties, the interests, the fears, the prejudices and the superstitions of indivivuals are active on such occasions to suggest a cause—but, it is extremely doubtful, whether any adequate cause has, in any case, been discovered. It has fallen to the lot of the writer of this article to witness numerous cases of disease of this character in situations which have been, previously and subsequently, amongst the most salubrious, but, in every instance, on the most scrutinizing investigation, no satisfactory cause could be met with. Many, it is true, have been suggested, but most of them have been founded in medical or physical error and in the natural credulity of mankind.

In the year 1816, the town of Havre and several other places in Normandy were affected by an epidemic cholera, putting on, pretty nearly, the same symptoms, as are induced by some varieties of poison. The public mind was agitated and every one felt persuaded that the disease was occasioned by Oysters, which had been obtained from a new bed, formed at Havre, in earth recently excavated in the moat of the old castle. So much excitement prevailed, that Messrs. Chaussier and Vauquelin were sent down to Havre, by the Faculty of Medicine of Paris to report on the causes. These gentlemen found the oysters perfectly sound—that the symptoms were merely those of an accidental epidemic and that the whole of the excitement had originated from jealousy towards the new establishment. The result proved the correctness of their report.

A medical gentleman was one of the witnesses on a trial, respecting a nuisance, where the writer of this article was a witness on the opposite side. He deposed, that an infected gas had passed in at the key-hole of a door and attacked a child, lying asleep in its crib, with a malady that proved fatal. The nuisance, complained of, was the smoke from a manufactory of the spirit of coal tar. The assigning of such a cause was frivolous in the extreme. The disease, under which the child labored, was hydrocephalus or water in the head, and might have occurred, as it does occur, in any situation.

Unfortunately, the public, instead of judging for themselves, are induced to adopt, without reservation, every phantasy, provided it emanates from one of the profession, and on subjects, frequently, where the extra-professional are as capable of arriving at correct conclusions as the professional. This is to be deplored. Medicine is physical in its nature,—physico-moral in its investigation and practice, and no assertion ought to be received, especially on a matter of this nature, merely because it proceeds from a medical practitioner. The reasons ought to be rigidly examined. They should be weighed in those scales which would be employed for testing the validity of any other assertion, and, until this course is adopted, we cannot expect to witness that improvement in the theory and in the practice of the Profession, which is in every point of view, so desirable an object.

Z.Y.

CHEMISTRY.

In Chaucer's Tale of the "*Chanon Yeman*," Chemistry is termed an *Elfish Art*, that is, taught or pursued by Spirits

"Whan we be ther as we shall exercise
"Our *elvishe* craft."

And again:

"Though he sit at his boke both daie and night,
"In lerning of this *elvish* nice lore."

DABNEY CARR TERRELL, Esq.

We publish, to day, the first of a manuscript collection of fugitive pieces, by the late Dabney Carr Terrell Esq.—an individual whose modest and unassuming merit prevented his being sufficiently appreciated beyond the circle of his immediate acquaintance. An unfortunate and fatal duel with a fellow student, at the age of seventeen, threw over his existence a gloom which is perceptible in all his compositions, and thus exerted a baneful influence on his subsequent success in life. Mr. Terrell died at New Orleans, of the yellow fever, on the sixteenth of August, in the year 1827, at the early age of 29.

Kentucky and Virginia, (for his parents were Virginians) will be proud to reckon him amongst their meritorious descendants and as one eminent, in a department, where so few are capable of attaining even mediocrity. Many of Mr. Terrell's productions will remind the reader of the immortal Byron, whom he appears, indeed, to have taken for his model, and all are indicative of unusual poetic talent in the lamented author.

SONNET I.

In my young days, and in yon foreign clime
Where I did seek a refuge from the blow
Which smote my soul, and quench'd its burning glow;
In the hard consciousness of blood and crime,
I plung'd me in the follies of the time
Where syrens smile and sparkling goblets flow;
And then I sought the sage's lore to know,
To catch the Muse's consecrated rhyme,
But these were vain: the heart, all uncontroll'd,
Still on *that* recollection sternly hung,
And spurning proud each thing of mortal mould,
Not all its woes a single tear had wrung
From him, who bore them silently, untold,
Till madly to that mountain nymph it clung.

D. C. T.

SONNET II.—TO THE MOON.

The moon is set, the thousand stars that shed,
Of late, their beams upon the face of night,
First waxing fainter, now at length are fled,
Before the softer dawn, whose steadier light,
Dispels the dark and opens to the sight,
The woods, the river and the mountains gray:
And yonder comes the joyous king and bright
Who bends upon the earth his cheering ray
And rules alone the Heaven's—the lord supreme of day.

D.C.T.

TRANSLATION FROM METASTASIO.

LA PARTENZA.—THE PARTING.

I

"Ecco qual fiero istante;
Nice, ma Nice addio!"

Alas! the fatal hour is come,
When from Matilda I must roam,
And how, Matilda! shall I bear
To live when thou no more art near?
Alas! a life of bitter pain
For we two ne'er must meet again;
But thou—who knows if it may be
That thou wilt e'er remember me!

II.

Permit, at least, of peace bereft,
When my Matilda I have left,
Permit my thoughts to linger where
Around thee breathes the amorous air;
Where e'er Matilda's steps appear,
In thought, her lover will be near;
But thou—who knows if it may be,
That thou wilt e'er remember me!

III.

When on a far and foreign shore
I hear the reckless breakers roar,
Of rocks, of woods, of sea, of plain,
I'll ask my lovely nymph again,
At morn, at noon, at ev'ning fall,
Upon Matilda's name I'll call,
And thou—who knows if it may be
That thou wilt e'er remember me!

IV.

* * * * *

V.

* * * * *

VI.

Of gallant youths a glittering band
Wait but the motion of thy hand,
Each, emulously, bent to prove,
His faith, his honor, and his love,
Oh God! who knows, amongst them all,
If thou wilt e'er my name recall.
Oh God! who knows if it may be
That thou wilt e'er remember me!

VII.

Oh! lady, think how keen the dart,
Which thou leav'st quivering in my heart;

And think of the despair I feel,
In that wild word—"farewell; farewell."
Oh! dearest! think my love how true;
Think on this fatal last adieu;
Think——Ah! who knows if it may be,
That thou wilt e'er remember me!

D.C.T.

METEOROLOGY.

The following remarks were intended to accompany the very interesting Meteorological paper of Mr. JEFFERSON, given in the last number of the Museum, but they were then excluded, for want of room.

Monticello, where the observations were made, forms the north-eastern termination of a ridge of low mountains, and the mansion house is placed on its summit. According to the Notes on Virginia, it is five hundred feet above the Rivanna river, which runs at its foot. From its small extent and free exposure, it is probable that its temperature does not differ sensibly from that of the surrounding country. The latitude of Monticello is stated, at the close of the paper, to be 37° 58′. It is proper to add that its longitude is about 78° 40′, west of Greenwich, and that it is about four miles east of the University.

Although Mr. Jefferson's observations include the most important meteorological phenomena, we have to regret that many which are of great importance have been omitted,—such as those which are indicated by the barometer, the hygrometer, &c. It is our intention, after the commencement of the next session, to institute a regular and complete course of Meteorological observations, at the Observatory of the University, and to publish the results in the Museum.

The following table, taken principally from a memoir by Humboldt, will bring Mr. Jefferson's observations into an interesting comparison with those made in a number of places of which the mean temperatures are between 50 and 10°, and which are thus included in an *isothermal band* of ten degrees, in which Monticello occupies a middle station. The reader will not fail to be struck with the great difference between the latitudes of the places in this band, in Europe and in America.

Positions.			Mean Temperatures of						
Places.	Lat. N.	Long.	Year.	Winter	Spring	Summer	Autumn	Warmest month.	Coldest month.
Monticello,	37° 58′	78° 40′ W.	55.40	37.67	54.67	73.33	56.50	75.	36.
Cincinnati,	30 6	82 40 W.	53.78	32.90	54.14	72.86	54.86	74.30	30.20
Philadelphia,	39 56	75 16 W.	53.42	32.18	51.44	73.94	56.48	77.	32.72
Yew York,	40 40	73 58 W.	53.78	29.84	51.26	79.16	54.50	80.78	25.34
Cambridge,	42 25	71 3 W.	50.36	33.98	47.66	70.70	49.82	72.86	29.84
Montpellier	43 36	3 52 E.	59.36	44.06	56.66	75.74	60.98	78.08	42.08
Bordeaux	44 50	0 34 W.	56.48	42.08	56.48	70.88	56.30	73.04	41.
Milan,	45 28	9 11 E.	55.76	36.32	56.12	73.04	56.84	74.66	36.14
Vienna,	48 12	16 22 E.	50.54	32.72	51.26	69.26	50.54	70.52	26.60
Paris,	48 50	2 20 E.	51.08	38.66	49.28	64.58	51.44	65.30	36.14
Brussels,	50 50	4 22 E.	51.08	36·68	53.24	66.20	51.08	67.28	35.60
London,	51 30	5 W.	50.36	39.56	48.56	63.14	50.18	64.40	37.76
Amsterdam,	52 22	4 50 E.	51.62	36.86	51.62	65.84	51.62	66.92	35.42
Pekin,	39 54	116 27 E.	54.86	26.42	56.30	82.58	54.32	84.38	24.62

The following table exhibits the difference between the mean temperature of each month, and that of the whole year, ($55\frac{1}{2}$,) as derived from Mr. Jeffersons's observations. We have thought it interesting to present this comparison, because these variations from the general mean form an essential character in the climate of a place.

Jan.	$-19\frac{1}{2}$°	July	$+19\frac{1}{2}$°
Feb.	$-15\frac{1}{2}$	Aug.	$+17\frac{1}{2}$
Mar.	$-9\frac{1}{2}$	Sept.	$+11\frac{1}{2}$
April	$+1$	Oct.	$+1\frac{1}{2}$
May	$+6$	Nov.	-10
June	$+16\frac{1}{2}$	Dec.	$-17\frac{1}{2}$

Kirwan supposed, that, in our climates the heat of April corresponded most nearly with the mean of the year, while Humboldt has found that October is more generally the month of mean temperature. Our table shows, that, in this place, these months have equal claims to this character. Excluding both, as neutral, we shall have the winter season composed of November, December, January, February, and March, and its mean temperature will be 41° 1′ or 14° 4′ below: the summer season will extend from May to September, inclusively, and its mean temperature will be 69° 7′, or 14° 2′ above the mean of the year. It will be observed that the coldest month, is January, and the hottest, July, and that this differ equally from the general mean. M.

Sir Walter Scott.—Much as Sir Walter Scott is read every where, in no country of the globe is the enthusiasm for him carried to so high a pitch as in Denmark. A single number of the Copenhagen Journal contains the announcement of three different translations of one of his works; and a professor of theology has even gone so far as to recommend, to his pupils, the study of the Waverley novels, as the surest way of attaining that knowledge of mankind, so indispensable in ministers of the gospel. *Blat. fur. Lit. Unter.*

THE POLICY OF ENCOURAGING MANUFACTURES.—No. 2.

We must now place the Manufacturer by the side of the Agriculturist.—JEFFERSON.

In the last number we attempted to shew that the fall of prices which our staple commodities had generally experienced, for the last eight or ten years, had so lowered the value of agricultural labor, as greatly to lessen one of the impediments to manufactures in Virginia: that these low prices of produce were to be ascribed, partly, to the policy of foreign nations; and partly, to the continual increase of our population, by which the means of domestic production were made to exceed those of foreign consumption; and that, as one of these causes would not, and the other could not be changed, there seemed to be no remedy co-extensive with the evil, except in diverting the growing excess of productive labour from agriculture to other employments.

Let us now compare the price of ordinary labour in Virginia, which, we have seen, is less than half its former price, with that which it bears in the counties which chiefly supply us with manufactures. But in making this comparison, it is in vain to expect accuracy. In Great-Britain, and in Europe, generally, the money-price of ordinary labour greatly varies from year to year, and in different districts, during the same year, according to the varying prices of corn, which constitutes so large a part, not merely of the diet, but of the whole expense of the labourer. This is so well understood, that the manufacturer regularly raises or lowers the wages of his workmen, except when some contrary change in the price of the fabric, may have, for a time, a counteracting influence. All, then, that can be done, is, to take the average of different counties, and of several adjoining years. According to such an average, the price of labour in England, as given by Lowe, from 1795 to 1799, was nine shillings sterling a week, equal to two dollars; and from 1800 to 1808, was eleven shillings, equal to two dollars and forty-five cents a week. The price of labour fell in that country, after the peace of 1815, with the fall of corn. Labour has, without doubt, somewhat risen, in consequence of the bad har-vest of the last year; and it would have risen much higher but for the general stagnation of trade and commercial distress, which have recently prevailed.

Taking these several circumstances of enhancement and depression together, the average price of labour in England, in manufactories, for the last five years, is probably not less than the average, from 1800 to 1808, of eleven shillings a week; but supposing it to be one shilling less, it is then equivalent to two dollars and twenty-two cents a week, or one hundred and fifteen dollars and forty-four cents a year. The price of slave labour, in Virginia, for the last five years, cannot be set down at as much, by about eight per cent. according to the most liberal estimate. Thus:

Hire of a male slave for a year,	$50
Board for the same time . .	40
Clothing	15
Taxes	2
	$107

It is conceded, that in making this com-

parison, we should allow for the well-known difference between the rate of hire, by the year, and by the week: the latter being always higher, because the loss of time from sickness and other causes, falls upon the labourer, in the one case, and upon the employer, in the other. But, on the other hand, the sum allowed for the maintenance of a slave is far beyond what it ordinarily costs on a farm or plantation, and, consequently, beyond what it would cost in a manufactory. The provisions annually consumed by a slave, allowing him 150 pounds of pork, and three barrels or fifteen bushels of Indian corn, will commonly not cost, exclusive of the inconsiderable expense of cooking, more than fifteen or twenty dollars; and his clothing, comprehending two complete suits, a hat, shoes, and a blanket, not more than twelve dollars. Besides, labourers have often hired, within a few years, for thirty-five or forty dollars a year, instead of fifty. By these changes, the whole expense of a labouring slave for a year, would be reduced to about seventy dollars; so that, after making a liberal addition to this sum, for the increased rate of hire by the week, we must come to the conclusion, that labour in Virginia, disregarding its quality, is something cheaper than it is in England.

But the difference is yet greater between the price of labour in this state and in the northern states, as may be seen by a comparison which we have more certain data for making. By the evidence, taken in 1827-8 before the committee on manufactures in Congress, the weekly wages of a common labourer employed in manufactories, were as follows:

			PER ANNUM.
In the Oriskany Factory, New-York, $4 50 per week,	equal to		$234
Tufft's Factory, Mass.	4 38		227 76
Shepherd's Factory, Mass.	4 84 1-2		252
Philipsburg Factory, N. Y.	4 15		216
Marland Factory, Mass.	6		312
Young's Factory, Delaw're	6		312
Dickinson's Factory, Ohio,	3		156
The Wolcott Factory, Mass	4 50		234
	8)37.37 1-2		8)1943 76
Average,	$4.67	Average,	242 96

Thus we see that the average wages, earned by labourers, in eight manufactories, situated in four different states, are nearly three times as much as our's earn in agriculture. But notwithstanding this high price of labour, these states are able, aided as they are by the tariff, to sustain a competition with foreign manufacturers in the domestic market.

It is not forgotten that in the preceding comparison, slave labour in Virginia, of that rude kind which is used in husbandry, is compared with the labour of freemen in England or the northern states, exercised in towns, and united with a certain degree of practical skill. As these last mentioned circumstances either enhance the price of labour or increase its productiveness, they should be taken into the account, and they may considerably vary the result of our estimate. They tend to make a part of the difference that has been stated rather apparent than real. But what allowance should be made for these circumstances, and how far they may affect the main object of our inquiry will be considered when we examine the objection that has been made to the employment of slaves in manufactures. We will now consider the objection arising from the higher profits of capital in Virginia.

In estimating the comparative value of capital, it will be necessary to distinguish it into three kinds. 1st. Real estate, comprehending land, buildings, and water-power. 2d. Machinery. 3d. Circulating capital employed in the purchase of materials, paying workmen, and the other current expenses of the establishment. Of these, the two last must be set down higher in Virginia than they are either in England or the northern states, and the first, much lower.

The buildings required for a manufactory will probably cost less in Virginia than in England; the greater cheapness of provisions and of the principal materials with us more than compensating the greater cheapness of workmanship with them. Our advantage would be yet greater in this respect over the northern states, as provisions and labour are lower in this state, and the materials not higher. But the price of that portion of the fixed capital which consists of water-power and of land for fuel, and building sites, depends so much upon accidents and localities, that any comparative estimate of the value of the real estate required for manufactories must be mainly conjectural. We are, however, far within the limits of probability, when we say the requisite land and water-power may be purchased with us for half the price they bear in the more populous states, and for

one-fourth of that which they would cost in England. In this case, the aggregate cost of land, water-power, and buildings, will not often exceed fifty per cent. of the sum paid for them by our competitors either on this or the other side of the Atlantic.

In the price of machinery, the advantage is altogether in favor of England. This species of manufacturing capital costs, in any part of the United States, from 50 to 100 per cent. more than it does in Great Britain. Such part of it as is fabricated in this country, will no doubt cost from 15 to 20 per cent. more in Virginia than in the northern states.

The monied, or circulating, capital for the purchase of materials and the pay of the workmen, can certainly be obtained on better terms in any of the places we have named than in this state. The value of money, or the natural rate of interest, in different countries, can be best compared, by comparing the price of the public funds or other domestic stock in each, with the annual interest or dividends. It is true that individuals cannot always borrow on as good terms as these prices of the public stocks indicate, but they serve very well to shew the proportional difference. Nor can small sums be borrowed at as low an interest as large ones. When thus compared, it will be found that the interest of money is somewhat lower in England, perhaps from one to two per cent, than it is in the northern states, and lower in these than it is in Virginia by a somewhat smaller difference.

But if money commands a higher interest in Virginia than in England or Massachusetts, it must also be remembered that we should have occasion for less of it in our manufacturing establishments, since the price of labour and of one of the raw materials, cotton, is cheaper with us than they are in either of these places: This difference ought to be a full equivalent to the difference of interest.

Let us now see what proportions these three kinds of capital commonly bear to each other. It is of importance to determine this, because they vary, as we have seen, in price, so greatly in different countries; real capital, for example, being cheaper here than in Europe, monied capital dearer, and machinery dearer still.

From the want of precision on this subject, in the witnesses examined before the committee on manufactures in Congress, we are not able to speak on this occasion with as much accuracy as we ought: most of the witnesses, in that examination, not distinguishing in the estimates made of their manufacturing capitals, real estate from machinery; some blending both with circulating capital; and others again having a part of their fixed capital on lease, or of their circulating capital on loan, without specifying the amount.

According to the only three witnesses who stated the precise sum vested in each species, real estate constitutes about 45 per cent. of the whole capital; machinery about 24 per cent. and the active, or circulating capital, about 31 per cent. Thus, according to

REAL ESTATE.

Mr. Young, of Delaware,	59 per cent.
Mr. Dickinson, of Ohio,	33.33
Mr. Pierce of New-Hampshire,	42 "
	3)134.33
Average,	$44.77

MACHINERY.

Mr. Young,	21 per cent.
Mr. Dickinson,	33.33
Mr. Pierce,	18
	3)72.33
Average,	$24.11

CIRCULATING CAPITAL.

Mr. Young,	20 per cent.
Mr. Dickinson,	33.33
Mr. Pierce,	40
	3)93.33
Average,	31.11

If this be considered as affording a fair average of the proportions in which these three elements of capital compose it in this country, then, supposing, according to our previous estimate, that real estate is 50 per ct. cheaper in Virginia than in the northern states, and machinery 15 per ct. dearer, the amount of capital required by them and by us, respectively, may be thus compared:

NORTHERN STATES.

Real Estate, . . 44.78 per cent.

Machinery, . . .	27.11	"
Monied Capital, .	31.11	"
	100	

VIRGINIA.

Real Estate, . .	22.39	per cent.
Machinery, . . .	32.64	"
Monied Capital, . .	31.11	"
	86.14	

The amount, then, of capital required for a manufacturing establishment in the northern states, compared with the amount required in Virginia would be about as 100 to 86, or 14 per cent less in Virginia. In England the quantity of real estate would commonly be less than is here supposed—steam engines there taking the place of water power here,—and consequently the quantity of machinery would be greater: but as real estate is there much higher than with us, and machinery much lower, the aggregate amount required in that country, for every species of capital, may not vary materially from that required in Virginia. If we suppose the quantity of real estate, requisite in England to be one half, at double the price; and the quantity of machinery to be double, at half the price, than both the aggregates and the several parts will be precisely the same in both countries.

Having thus compared, as accurately as the insufficient data we possess enabled us to do, the value of labour and capital in this state, with the value they bear in countries which manufacture for us, let us now see in what proportions wages, profits, and the raw material severally enter into the price of the manufactured commodity. In the case of woollen manufactures we derive the most authentic information of their proportions from the evidence given to the committee on manufactures. That evidence will furnish us with sufficient data for making a comparison concerning fabrics of the same material, and of a similar quality, but concerning no other; as the proportions vary, both with the raw material and the fineness of the fabric. In some manufactures, as in that of cutlery, the labour is comparatively every thing and the raw material nothing, whilst in others, as in that of nails, the raw material is worth more than the labour. In ordinary woollen manufactures the raw material is half the cost . in those of cotton it is about a quarter. It may therefore very well happen that while a country, in which labour is high, cannot contend with others in which it is cheap, in the manufacture of the finer fabrics, it might successfully rival them in the coarser, not merely because the first cost of the latter would be proportionally less enhanced by the high price of labour, but also by reason of the greater expense of transportation.

Let us now ascertain the proportion which the raw material, wages and profits bear to each other in our woollen manufactures by averaging the statements of such of the witnesses as disclosed these facts with sufficient precision.

To determine the value of the raw material, we have, in every instance, the quantity and cost of the wool from the positive testimony of the witness, but the value of the dye stuffs and other materials will, in some cases, be computed at the rate of eighteen dollars for every thousand weight of wool, in conformity with data furnished by other cases.

Under the head of wages will be comprehended not merely those received by the ordinary workmen, but also those paid for peculiar skill, and for superintendance, and other extra services. The whole number of persons employed in these selected manufactories was 682, including women and children. They manufactured 408,106 pounds of wool in a year, and their average wages was upwards of $200 each.

The profits will be set down at 10 per cent. on the capital stock. Although this is more than any of the manufacturing establishments, referred to, appear to have made, and some even incurred considerable loss, yet as a smaller profit would not permanently induce our capitalists to engage in manufacturing, or, having engaged in the business, to continue it, it seems not too much. This will allow 8 per cent. on the cost of the real estate and buildings; about 15 per cent. on the cost of the machinery, and 10 per cent. on the monied capital. According to the average taken on the preceding principles, the annual profits are 18 per cent. the cost of the raw materials used in a year, 51 per cent. and the wages for the same time 31 per cent. as will appear by the following Table:

Manufactories.	Capital.	Annual Profits.	Pounds of wool manufactured in a year.	Value of wool and other materials.	Number of Persons.	Wages for a Year.
Oriskany Factory, N.York	$83,750	$8,375	60,000	$35,000	90	$17,156
Tuffts' " Mass.	40,000	4,000	40,000	21,153	55	12,105
Shepherd's " Mass.	130,000	13,000	68,10	58,100	120	24,202
Philipsborough " N.York	31,060	3,100	25,00	13,000	26	6,688
Marland's " Mass.	42,000	4,200	13,00	25,372	70	13,728
Wolcott " Mass.	126,000	12,600	60,00	19,550	121	24,190
Salmon Falls " N.Hamp.	362,000	36,200	100,000	62,528	200	42,432
7	814,750	81,475	404,106	234,703	682	140,501
Average	116,392	11,639	Average	33,529	Average	20,071

In a former comparative estimate, we considered that the whole capital required for a manufactory in Virginia, would cost 14 per cent. less than a similar establishment in the northern states; but, to balance that difference, that the natural interest of money was somewhat lower with them than with us; and that the price of ordinary labour was, according to the most liberal estimate, less than one half that which it bears in those states. Estimating it, however, only at one half, and the raw material at the same price, then the manufactured commodity which would cost with them one hundred dollars, would cost in Virginia but eighty-four dollars and a half; making a difference in our favor of fifteen and a half per cent. Thus:

	In Northern States.	In Virginia.
Annual profits, . .	$18	$18
Wages, ...	31	15 50
Raw material, . . .	51	51
	$100	84 50

In comparing the same constituents of price with those in England, we considered the *amount* of capital required to be the same in both countries, the items that were cheaper in one, being balanced by those that were cheaper in the other. But as *interest* is much lower in England, we will estimate the profits at one-fourth, or 25 per cent. less than they are in Virginia. The wages of labour, we have seen, are about 7 per cent. higher there than in this state (115.44 to 107;) and the raw material (wool) we will now suppose to be 25 per cent. lower. A manufacture of this article which will cost $100 in the northern states, and $84 50 in Virginia, will, estimated on the preceding principles, cost in England $68.31, or nearly 20 per cent. less than in this state. Thus:

Profits, ...	$13 50
Wages, ...	16 56
Raw material, . . .	38 25
	$68 31

In the cotton manufactures of England, taking coarse and fine fabrics together, it is said that the price of the manufacture is thus apportioned among its elements:

Raw material. . . .	25 per cent.
Wages	42 "
Profits	33 "
	100

Supposing the comparative wages and profits in that country and in Virginia to be as before stated, and the raw material to be 25 per cent. cheaper with us, then the cotton fabric which cost $100 there, would cost here $102 05 Thus:

Raw material.	$18 75
Wages	39 30
Profits	44 00
	$102 05

It would thus appear that woollen fabrics may be manfactured in Virginia within 20 per cent as cheaply as in England, and cotton fabrics within 2 per cent, supposing we could add skill to all the other requisites for manufacturing.

The view that has been herein taken of the capacities of our manufacturers to enter into competition with the manufacturers of England, in our own markets, are very different from those taken by the Southern Review No. IV. in the article on the tariff. But although we highly respect the talents of the writer, and can make every allowance for his well grounded complaints of the tariff, we cannot assent to his reasoning on the subject of American manufac-

tures. The wide difference of our results from those of the reviewer in our respective estimates of the cost of manufactures in England, and in this country, arises, 1st. From his not distinguishing between that part of the manufacturing capital which is cheaper in this country and that which is cheaper in England. 2d. From his overrating the difference of interest between the two countries, and probably the difference in the price of manufacturing labour. 3d. and lastly, from his considering that distribution of the elements of price which was suited only to an average of coarse and fine fabrics, as applicable to any description of them, separately.

The conclusions to which we have arrived seem to receive strong confirmation from the concurring statements of many of the most intelligent and respectable witnesses, examined by the committee of Congress, as Mr. Pierce of New Hampshire; Col. Shepherd, Mr. Wolcott, Mr. Clapp and Mr. Marland of Massachusetts; Mr. Dupont and Mr. Young of Delaware, and Mr. Dickinson of Ohio, all of whom declared their belief that we could manufacture wool in the United States as cheap as they could in Great Britain, provided we could get the raw material as cheap: and whatever deductions may be made for the bias under which these gentlemen may be supposed to have formed their opinions, and however we may believe them mistaken, it is conclusively proved that we are able to furnish the domestic market with some species of *cotton* fabrics cheaper than it could be furnished from abroad, since we can contend with the British, as to these in foreign markets not only without any advantage from our Tariff, but after having incurred the expense of distant transportation.

Mr. ROSCOE.

The venerable author of Leo X. and Lorenzo de Medicis has been, this year, selected as one of the two men of letters, to be distinguished by being presented with a gold medal (of £50 or $222) which the king of Great Britain places annually at the disposal of the Royal Society of Literature.

UNIVERSITY INTELLIGENCE.

Meeting of Visiters—Public Examination, &c.—The meeting of the Board of Visiters of this University will take place on the 11th. instant—on which day the General Examination will commence. This will continue six days, and, on Saturday the eighteenth, Orations will be delivered in the Rotunda and Collegiate business transacted, at which the public are invited to be present.

The arrangement of the exercises for the public day will be given hereafter.

The following is the general plan of Examinations &c. adopted by the Faculty.

1. At the close of the Session, the Chairman of the Faculty shall appoint, for the Examination of each School, a Committee consisting of the Professor of that School, and of two other Professors.

2. The Professor shall prepare, in writing, a series of questions to be proposed to his Class, at their examination, and to these questions he shall affix numerical values, according to the estimate he shall form of their relative difficulty, the highest number being one hundred. The list thus prepared shall be submitted to the Committee for their approbation. In the schools of languages, subjects may also be selected for oral examination.

3. The times of examination for the several Schools shall be appointed by the Chairman.

4. At the hour appointed, the students of the class to be examined shall take their places in the Lecture room, provided with pens, ink and paper. The written questions shall then, for the first time, be presented to them, and they shall be required to give the answers, in writing with their names subscribed.

5. A majority of the committee shall always be present during the examination; and they shall see that the Students keep perfect silence, do not leave their seats, and have no communication with one another, or with other persons. When, in the judgment of the committee, sufficient time has been allowed for preparing the answers, the examination shall be closed, and all the papers handed in.

6. The Professor shall then carefully examine and compare all the answers, and shall prepare a report, in which he shall mark, numerically, the value which he attaches to each; the highest number for any answer being that which had been before fixed upon as the value of the corresponding question. For the oral examinations, the values shall be marked at the time by the Professor with the approbation of the committee, but the number attached to any exercise of this kind shall not exceed twenty.

7. This Report shall be submitted to the committee, and if approved by them, shall be laid

before the Faculty, together with all the paper connected with it, which are to be preserved in the archive of the University.

8. If the Professor of a school shall be discontented with any measure of the other members of the committee respecting his examination, he may make an appeal to the Faculty, whose decision shall be conclusive.

9. The students shall then be arranged into three separate Divisions, according to the merit of their examinations as determined by the following method.—The numerical values attached to all the questions are to be added together, and also the values of all the answers given by each student. If this last number exceeds 3-4ths of the first, the student shall be ranked in the first division, if it be less than 3-4ths, and more than 1-4th, in the second; and if less than 1-4th, in the third.

10. On the last day of the session, all the students of the University shall be assembled in the Rotunda, when the public shall be invited to witness the results of the examination. The business of the day shall be arranged and conducted by the Chairman, who shall preside on the occasion.

Each of the Professors shall, on the call of the Chairman, mention the result of the examination of his school, reading the questions proposed, naming the students who are most proficient and calling upon one or more of them, through the Chairman, to read the answers previously selected by the committee, the black board being used if necessary. On this occasion, addresses shall be delivered, and essays read by the students, the whole number not to exceed six. The speakers and writers shall be chosen by the chairman, and their compositions shall be submitted to him for his approbation.

On this day, also, certificates and diplomas shall be delivered to the graduates; and, in general, such business shall be transacted, and such communications made as may be considered appropriate to the occasion, and of public interest.

*

In accordance with the above regulations of the Faculty, the following days have been appointed, by the Chairman for examination in the various schools

	July.				
Antient Languages .	10	11	13	14	15
Modern do. . .	10	11	13		15
Mathematics . . .		11		14	16
Natural Philosophy . . .				14	
Chemistry and Materia Medica			13		16
Medicine				14	
Moral Philosophy . .			13		16
Law					16
Demonstratorship of Anatomy and Surgery . .					15

*

Graduates. The Examinations for graduation in the various schools of the University are now going on. The number of candidates is thirteen.

*

Meeting of Overseers of Harvard University. On Thursday there was an adjourned meeting at the Senate Chamber, of the Board of Overseers of Harvard University, for the purpose of acting upon sundry nominations of the corporation, and other business; His Excellency Gov. Lincoln presiding. The nomination of the Hon. Joseph Story as Dane Professor of Law was confirmed. John H. Ashmun, Esq. was also appointed, in concurrence, Royal Professor of Law, which completes the Law School at the University. Rev. Henry Ware, Jr. was appointed, in concurrence, Professor and Superintendent in the Theological school. Alanson Brigham was appointed Proctor, and committees were nominated for the purpose of visiting the University and Library, examining the Treasurer's accounts, &c. The Board then adjourned.

NOTICE TO CORRESPONDENTS. &c.

Communications have been received from N, R, ZY and INO. *

The Editors have to apologize for several typographical errors in the last number, occasioned by unavoidable circumstances, which can scarcely occur again. *

Erratum, Page 40—for Sonnet II—to the Moon, read to the Morn.

The Editors will thank their contributors not to allow their communications to exceed six printed pages, unless the subject admits of division. *

Advertisements, when of a purely literary character, will be inserted on the last page of the Journal. *

It is the intention of the Editors to offer, occasionally, as a premium, a copy of the 'Museum' for one year, for the best essay, not exceeding six pages, written by a Student of the University, on subjects to be specified. *

Authors and Publishers, desirous of having works noticed in the Museum, must transmit them free of expence, to the Editors at the University. *

PUBLISHED BY F. CARR.

University Press.—James Alexander, Printer.